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By-Zintz, Miles V.

What Classroom Teachers Should Know About Bilingual Education.

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Chapter I of this classroom teacher's guide to bilingual education discusses cross-cultural education and English language learning, with illustrations from Navaho, Alaskan Indian, Zuni, and Mexican-American cultures. It is stressed that teachers must be alert to the differences in languages, values, customs, and the cultural heritage of their students. They must understand their students' feelings, attitudes, and emotional responses. One way of life or one language for communication is not better, or "more right." than another. Chapter II discusses several basic linguistic principles and components of language. Some contrastive points of Spanish and English grammar and pronunciation are also presented, in non-linguistic terminology. In Chapter III, some techniques for teaching oral substitution, expansion, and transformation practices are illustrated. Chapter IV presents some techniques for developing vocabulary and briefly describes several TESOL texts. Chapter V defines and discusses some principles underlying bilingual education and cites programs observed in South Africa, Wales, Canada, and Miami, Florida. Materials for Spanish-English bilingual programs, and selected bilingual readings for classroom teachers are listed. Annotated bibliographies of studies on cultures, language, vocabulary, and TESOL texts are appended. (AMM)

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What Teachers Should Know About Bilingual Education

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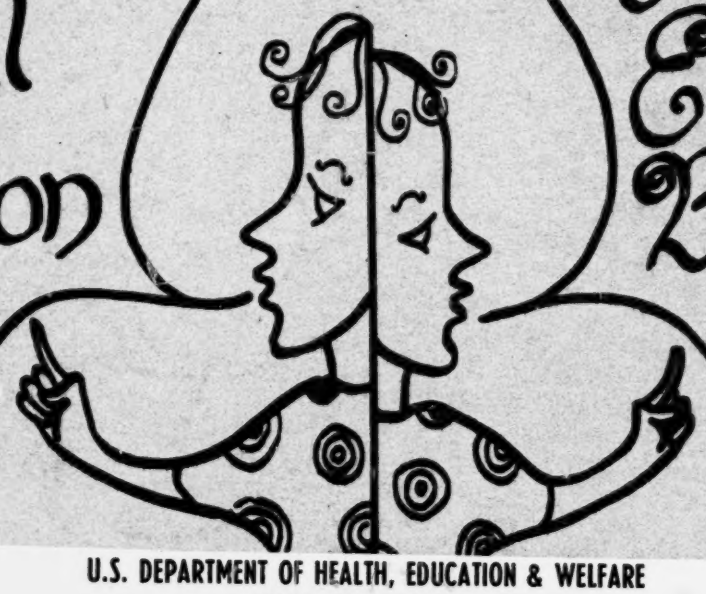

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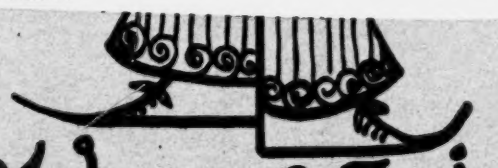

Miles V. Zintz

Horacio Ulibarrí: Director
James G. Cooper: Co-Director
INTERPRETIVE STUDY on BILINGUAL EDUCATION
COLLEGE of EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY of NEW MEXICO

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WHAT CLASSROOM TEACHERS SHOULD KNOW ABOUT BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Chapter

I Cross-Cultural Education

II Problems in Second Language Learning

III Classroom Methodology

IV Special Aspects of Vocabulary

V The Bilingual School

Miles V. Zintz
Professor of Education
University of New Mexico
March 15, 1969

Chapter I

CROSS-CULTURAL EDUCATION

Education Across Cultures in the Southwest

The child whose cultural heritage is different from the school culture is in need of special educational services that will bridge the cultural barriers and meet his language needs before he can take advantage of the course of study with which he is apt to be confronted.

Each child coming to the school is expected to become oriented to certain values emphasized in the dominant culture. Some of these values are: (Zintz)

1. He must climb the ladder of success, and in order to do this he must place a high value on competitive achievement.

2. He must learn time orientation that will be precise to the hour and minute, and he must also learn to place a high value on looking to the future.

3. He must accept the teachers' reiteration that there is a scientific explanation for all natural phenomena.

4. He must become accustomed to change and must anticipate change. (The dominant culture teaches that "change," in and of itself, is good and desirable!)

5. He must trade his shy, quiet, reserved, and anonymous behavior for socially approved aggressive, competitive behavior.

6. He must somehow be brought to understand that he can, with some independence, shape his own destiny, as opposed to the tradition of remaining an anonymous member of his society.

Too many teachers are inadequately prepared to understand or to accept these dissimilar cultural values. Teachers come from homes where the drive for success and achievement has been internalized early, where "work for work's sake" is rewarded, and where time and energy are spent building for the future. The Indian child, for example, comes to the classroom with a set of values and a background of experience radically different from that of the usual school child. To teach the Indian child successfully, the teacher must be cognizant of these differences and must above all else seek to understand, without disparagement, those ideas, values, and practices different from his own.

Robert Roessel, former Director of the Experimental Education Program at Rough Rock, Arizona, for Navajo children, attempts to give his staff an awareness of the peculiar texture of Navajo life. He hopes to avert just such episodes as the small-scale tragedy reported below that

resulted from a teacher's inexperience at a reservation school. The teacher was from the East. (Conklin)

> Her credentials were excellent, but she had never taught Navajo children before. She noticed one morning that the face and arms of one of the third grade boys was covered by something that looked like soot. In his hair was a substance that resembled grease. With a normal respect for cleanliness, the teacher asked the boy to wash himself. When he refused, she took him to the washroom and washed him.
>
> The boy never returned to school. It turned out that his family had conducted an important healing ceremony on his sick sister, the "soot" and "grease" being a part of the ceremonial painting. With her soap and water, the teacher destroyed the healing powers of the ceremony. The girl died and the parents could not be shaken in their belief that it was the teacher's fault. No member of the family has set foot in a school since.

Kelley, in the ASCD Yearbook, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, describes the behavior of the fully-functioning self in present day society:

> We live in a moving, changing, becoming-but-never-arriving world. . .
>
> (The child) needs to see process, the building and becoming nature of himself. Today has no meaning in the absence of yesterdays and tomorrows.
>
> The growing self must feel that it is involved, that it is really a part of what is going on, that in some degree it is helping shape its own destiny.
>
> The acceptance of change as a universal phenomenon brings about modifications of personality. . . one who accepts change and expects it, behaves differently . . .
>
> He sees the evil of the static personality because it seeks to stop the process of creation . . . Life to him means discovery and adventure, flourishing because it is in tune with the universe.

But the Indian child has likely already learned that nature provides. Man's objective is to remain in harmony with nature. The dances, the rituals, the seasonal prayers, and the chants are learned perfectly and passed from one generation to another--hoping to maintain and restore harmony.

Indians believe that time is always with us. Life is concerned with the here and now. Accepting nature in its seasons, they will get through the years one at a time.

So, too, the Indian child is early made to feel that he is involved and personally responsible for doing his part so that all of life--in

the village--in the natural order--all the cosmic forces--will be kept running smoothly and harmoniously. But, not with the goal of changing his destiny determined for him by the older and wiser ones. He best fulfills his destiny by remaining an anonymous member of his social group. He accepts group sanctions, placing primary emphasis on conformity.

The child will be able to understand the values of his teacher much better if the teacher has some understanding and acceptance of his.

Cultural Differences and English Language Learning

In the publication Educating the Children of the Poor, (Frazier) it is pointed out in "the task ahead" that adequate theory requires an integration of, or welding together of, the wisdom of sociologists and psychologists so that environmental factors and personality variables will each get proper attention. Applied anthropology is also a very important portion of the total appraisal of the child. His cultural heritage includes all the values, ideals, aspirations, anxieties, taboos, and mores that structure his fundamental habits of behaving.

Some excerpts from the literature will make clear the anthropological contribution to understanding behavior.

Salisbury related a rather sobering story of the Alaska Indian child's problem with the middle-class Anglo-oriented course of study:

> By the time the native child reaches the age of seven, his cultural and language patterns have been set and his parents are required by law to send him to school. Until this time he is likely to speak only his own local dialect of Indian, Aleut, or Eskimo, or if his parents have had some formal school he may speak a kind of halting English.
>
> He now enters a completely foreign setting - the western classroom situation. His teacher is likely to be a Caucasian who knows little or nothing about his cultural background. He is taught to read the Dick and Jane series. Many things confuse him: Dick and Jane are two gussuk (Eskimo term for white person. From Russian word, cossack.) children who play together. Yet he knows that boys and girls do not play together and do not share toys. They have a dog named Spot who comes indoors and does not work. They have a father who leaves for some mysterious place called 'office' each day and never brings any food home with him. He drives a machine called an automobile on a hard covered road called a street which has a policeman on each corner. These policemen always smile, wear funny clothing and spend their time helping children to cross the street. Why do these children need this help? Dick and Jane's mother spends a lot of time in the kitchen cooking a strange food called 'cookies' on a stove which has no flame in it.

> But the only bewildering part is yet to come. One day they drive out to the country which is a place where Dick and Jane's grandparents are kept. They do not live with the family and they are so glad to see Dick and Jane that one is certain that they have been ostracized from the rest of the family for some terrible reason. The old people live on something called a 'farm,' which is a place where many strange animals are kept - a peculiar beast called a 'cow,' some odd looking birds called 'chickens' and a 'horse' which looks like a deformed moose. And so on. For the next twelve years the process goes on. The native child continues to learn this new language which is of no earthly use to him at home and which seems completely unrelated to the world of sky, birds, snow, ice, and tundra which he sees around him.

Evvard and Mitchell have analyzed the concepts in the stories in the Scott-Foresman Basic Readers and found many conflicts with the young Navajo child's concept of himself, his family, and his community. They have contrasted beliefs and values encountered in the Scott-Foresman Basic Readers for the primary grades with the beliefs and values of the traditional Navajo child:

Middle-class, Urban Values:	Navajo Values:
Pets have human-like personalities	Pets are distinct from human personality
Life is pictured as child-centered	Life is adult-centered
Adults participate in children's activities	Children participate in adult activities
Germ-theory is implicitly expressed	Good health results from harmony with nature
Children and parents are masters of their environment	Children accept their environment and live with it
Children are energetic, outgoing, obviously happy	Children are passive and unexpressive
Many toys and much clothing is an accepted value	Children can only hope for much clothing and toys
Life is easy, safe, and bland	Life is hard and dangerous

The student internalizes much of his way of behaving by the demands placed upon him by his culture. The culture instills group goals, mores, taboos, values, and levels of aspiration. The attitude of the teacher, of course, is vital in these circumstances. Unless the teacher is patient and understanding, the student who must learn English as a second language develops insecurity instead of security, worry instead of competence

and makes enemies instead of friends for the English language.

Cultural mores, habits, values and characteristics interfere with the learning of a second language. This interference is aggravated by the lack of knowledge which educators have about others' cultures. Culture represents communication, and without culture there can be no communication. Personality affects communication. Home environment contributes to the success or failure of acculturation and language acquisition. Most of all, the desire and need to accept the new language and its cultural ramifications determine the success of the language learner's endeavors.

The basic problems in the Southwest are biculturalism, not bilingualism. Language expresses the values of a culture; culture, by determining behavioral practices and goals, limits the connotations and denotations of the language. The scope of bilingualism is illustrated in the use of the word father in Anglo-America and in Zuni Indian culture. For the Zuni child, the word father represents his mother's husband - a man who enjoys his children as companions. He takes no part in disciplining his children, nor does he have any concern for their economic security. In his matrilineal society, the mother owns the property and her brothers assist in the rearing of and disciplining of the children. Further, it is said that she may divorce her husband by leaving his shoes and ceremonial garb outside the door while he is away and that this act will be his cue to gather up his few belongings and return to his mother's house. Family organization is of an extended nature, and the marriage does not decree that a man-wife love relationship is more important than the consanguinal mother-son or sister-brother relationship. In short, in a matrilineal, consanguinal, extended family, father may mean a specific set of behavior patterns such as described above.

Father, for the Anglo middle-class child, represents the legal head of a household who is held responsible for the rearing and disciplining of his children. His marriage to his wife is based, at least theoretically, on a conjugal, or love relationship; and even if dissolved in a court of law, he may still be held accountable for her full support. For this child, father is a full set of meanings derived from a patrilineal, conjugal, nuclear family relationship. (Zintz, "Cultural Aspects of Bilingualism")

The interdependence of language and culture for the young child has been well stated by Davies:

> To change a child's medium of instruction is surely to change his culture; is not culture bound up with language? And if the language should disappear, can the culture remain? Everyone must have his own orientation to life, and language provides the most natural means of reacting to life. In the deepest things of the heart, a man or woman turns naturally to the mother tongue; and in a child's formative stages, his confidence in that tongue must never be impaired.

It is hoped that the child holds two psychological values about his

language and his family that speaks that language. First, he should feel that his language is a good one; that it expresses his ideas and wishes adequately; and that he may be justly proud to use it. Second, all of the people in his extended family use the language which he has learned as his first language and he derives his ego strength and sense of personal worth as a member of that particular ethnic group. If the school teaches, however, that English is the only acceptable language there and that use of another language even during free play on the playground will be punished, the child can only conclude that his school feels that his language is inferior to the one that must be used all the <u>time</u> during the school day.

If the teacher reacts negatively to the child's first language, the child will further conclude that only people that speak English are adequate in his teacher's eyes. In the Southwest for many years, both of these things were done to children. They were denied the use of their own language and subtly taught that their language and their people were inferior. To cite one very bad example of this kind of teaching, a dormmitory counselor in a bordertown dormitory for Indian students is reported to have met a bus load of boys and girls at his school in the fall of the year, and asked them to group themselves around him so that he might say a word to them. He then made the following announcement: "The first thing I want you to do here is to forget that you are an Indian, and the second thing I want to tell you is that we speak only English around here."

For Spanish-speaking children, bilingual schools taught in Spanish and English would be natural, workable solutions in many schools in the Southwest. Since Spanish is a major language of the world, books, newspapers, and periodicals are readily available in that language. Many nations in the Americas have some 200,000,000 speakers of the language with libraries, government, business, and schools functioning in Spanish.

The question of young Navajo children receiving instruction in school in the Navajo language is an entirely different question - though no less important. Although there are no libraries and there is no indicated future use, the two psychological values already discussed are just as valid for the Navajo as for the Spanish child.

Maybe, even for him, at age five and at age six, the school should spend up to two-thirds of his day in the Navajo language with planned, sequenced, intensive teaching of English as a spoken means of communication. Learning concepts and reading readiness in Navajo would save the child some time later on. Hopefully, by age seven or eight, he would begin to learn to read in English and use it as his medium of reading and writing instruction. Yet, by the behavior of the adults at school during his first three years there, he would know that the school valued his language, and in turn his cultural heritage, and he might well participate in a Navajo conversation class throughout his school life.

The following paragraph has <u>too</u> accurately and for <u>too</u> long expressed the viewpoint of too many Anglo-American teachers toward the Mexican-American students and their parents:

> They are good people. Their only handicap is the bag full of superstitions and silly notions they inherited from Mexico. When they get rid of these superstitions, they will be good Americans. The schools help more than anything else. In time, the Latins will think and act like Americans. A lot depends on whether or not we can get them to switch from Spanish to English. When they speak Spanish they think Mexican. When the day comes that they speak English at home like the rest of us, they will be part of the American way of life. I just don't understand why they are so insistent about using Spanish. They should realize that it's not the American tongue. (Madsen)

Summary

Teachers must be continually alert to the differences in languages, values, customs, the whole cultural heritage, and seek to understand the students they teach as real people with all the feelings, attitudes, and emotional responses that make them behave the way they do. Most important is the realization that one way of life or one language for communication is not better, nor superior, and not "more right" than another.

Chapter II
PROBLEMS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Linguistics is the scientific study of languages. It encompasses the sounds of language (forty-four phonemes in English) which is called phonology; the meanings in words which is called semantics; and the order of words in sentences which is called syntax, or structure, or the grammar of the language.

The linguistics of English language can be discussed meaningfully only in the context of the cultural values, practices, attitudes and ideals which are expressed through language. Chapter I contained such a discussion.

Linguistic Principles and Teaching English Sentence Structure

There are several linguistic principles that impinge directly on the work of the classroom teacher. Many teachers are undoubtedly aware of these; others may need to study them carefully and reflect upon their meanings.

1. Language is oral. It is speech before it is reading or writing. Spoken language is the "natural" expression commonly used by the native speaker with its contractions, idiomatic and slang expressions, and one word answers. "How are you?" is sure to be spoken "Howarya." "Itza book" will be the oral expression for "It is a book."

2. Language is habit. It is learned behavior. Native speakers are not conscious of each sound or word they say nor of the sequence of the sounds of words. They are primarily conscious of the ideas or thoughts they are trying to convey. The stringing together of sounds in certain positions is an unconscious act. The language habit is automatic for children by the time they start to first grade. Because language is learned behavior, it is learned through the repetition of producing it. When children learn the first language in a free, relaxed, trial-and-error atmosphere, there is time for error, correction, and repetition without conscious effort. When any language is super-imposed as a second language, there is much interference between the two sound patterns and much guided repetition, correction, and drill are indicated.

3. Language is arbitrary. It has a specific, prescribed structure. Young children learning English in a classroom were heard composing sentences about "things" visibly around them. One child said, "This is a book." Another said, "This is leaves." Another said, "This is children." The teacher accepted the contributions and went on to something else. She should, of course, accept the contribution of each child and encourage him. But, he must either learn the first time to say, "These are leaves" and "These are children" or he will need later to try to unlearn something that he thought "his teacher taught him."

4. Language is personal. Language reflects the individual's self-image and is his only avenue to expressing all that he is, all that he has as a heritage, and all that he aspires to be. Just how

personal is perhaps well illustrated in the way in which the Paraguayan people have for centuries now had Spanish as the official language of business and government, but have to this day retained Guarani, a pre-literate Indian dialect, as the language of the home and family in which they express their most personal thoughts. It is said that Paraguay is our most bilingual country.

5. The language of a given group of people is neither "good" nor "bad"; it is communication. Reference to dialects of English other than "standard" English are best referred to as "non-standard" rather than "sub-standard."

6. Language is more than words. This is evidenced by the fact that the spoken language can reveal more meanings than the written language. The suprasegmentals of pitch, stress, and juncture as well as facial expression, gesture, and bodily movement add a great deal to meaning and interpretation of language.

7. Language is culturally transmitted. (See use of "father" in two cultures, p. 7)

Learning English as a Second Language vs. Learning It as a First

Teaching English as a second language is not at all like teaching English to English speakers although teacher preparation in most colleges for teachers ignore this very important fact. Most teachers find themselves totally unprepared when they go to teach in areas where large percentages of children enrolled in school are learners of English as a new language. On the other hand, the fact remains that no one can "help himself" in our English-speaking society anywhere until he can speak the language of his peers fluently and spontaneously. The audio-lingual approach to second language learning can prepare boys and girls for much more profitable formal school experiences.

The learning of English by the native speaker may be contrasted with learning English as a second language in several ways:

When learning English as a native language:	When learning English as a second language:
1. Time is not a factor, the child has six pre-school years to master the sound system of the language of his mother.	1. Time is a crucial factor. One may have eight weeks in the summer; an intensive course; or one must continue an academic course of study in English while learning English.
2. Infants are usually richly rewarded for each imitative effort. Trial-and-error works very well-with much time-in a friendly, supportive, informal atmosphere.	2. The student must "Listen, repeat, and memorize.

3. Parents and friends are very patient and expect to repeat, reward, and reinforce.	3. The student is "expected" to speak the language of the school. He must have a course of study that is organized, sequential, and efficient. Those who have the patterns internalized are often impatient with older students. Teachers must repeat, reward, and reinforce.
4. The child grows up in an environment where he enjoys a maximum opportunity to repeat and to remember everything he hears.	4. The classroom situation is conducive to much forgetting. What one learns during one hour, he has all day, all week-end, all vacation periods to forget. One tends to forget almost all of what he studies in a "formal' manner.
5. What the child doesn't remember today, or whatever mistakes he keeps making today, he can unlearn or relearn in the weeks or months in the future.	5. Drills cannot be avoided. Students must have many repetitions, and carefully spaced reviews on all patterns they need to learn to use automatically.

Components of Language

Grammarians and linguists have given us words to use to describe the language. Phonology is the study of sounds of the language; morphology is the study of the structure of words; syntax is the grammar of the language, word order, kernel sentences, and modifiers which give variety to the sentences we use; and semantics is the study of meanings communicated through languages. The chart on the following page will help the reader to visualize elements of each of these four ways to describe the language.

The aural-oral method of learning a language is a method of instruction that places emphasis, especially in the beginning, on hearing and speaking the new language rather than on learning grammatical structure, translation, reading or writing. The emphasis is entirely upon hearing and speaking the language first. When this method is correctly followed, the learner says only what he has heard (with understanding), reads what he has said, and writes what he has heard, said, and read.

1. While Spanish uses only five vowel sounds, English uses many more to distinguish meanings. Practice must be given to develop auditory discrimination of these pairs of vowels. Heat - hit; met - mate; tap - tape; look - luck; pin - pine; hat - hot; sheep - ship; mit - meet; eat - it; late - let; bed - bad; fool - full; coat - caught; caught - cut.

2. Consonant sounds can cause trouble, too. Pig - big; pig - pick; thank - sank; then - den; place - plays. Also, clusters like "ts" in hats; "lpt" in helped; "lkt" in talked.

3. Minimal pairs. The phoneme is the minimum element of expression in a spoken language by which one thing that may be said is distinguished from any other thing which might have been said. Thus, bill and pill differ only in one phoneme. They are, then, a minimal pair. Minimal pairs are two words that have only one phoneme sound that is not the same. Auditory discrimination practice is important in second language teaching to help learners clearly distinguish new phonemes.

pick-pig	sheep-ship	map-mat
big-pig	force-fours	death-deaf
niece-knees	lacy-lazy	bus-buzz
price-prize	witch-which	bit-beat
age-edge	taste-test	boat-both
pain-pen	dip-deep	tuck-tug

See pictures of minimal pairs on the following pages. A picture may be more useful than a written word for beginning students.

Phonologically, children must learn to hear all the phonemes that are used in English that were not used in their native language. For Spanish-speakers learning English, there are several substitutions likely to be made such as "thumb' or "sumb"; "path" as "pass." Variant vowel sounds need to be heard clearly as do the several consonant sounds often substituted. This requires the ability to discriminate minimal pairs with practice. Minimal pairs are two words that are sounded except for one sound that changes the meaning. Ending consonant sounds are often troublesome. For example, "pick" is spoken as "pig"; "map" is spoken as "mat."

4. Modifiers do not follow the noun in English:
The blue sky, not the sky blue.
The juicy apples, not the apples juicy.
Also,
The bus station is not the same as the station bus.
The pocket watch is not the same as the watch pocket.

5. Intonation and stress are very important in conveying meanings:
Which book did you buy? Are you going back to school this fall?
Which book did you buy? Are you going back to school this fall?
Which book did you buy? Are you going back to school this fall?

Read each sentence emphasizing the underlined word.

6. Juncture: (Inflection determines meaning.)

Mary was home sick.	Mary was sick at home.
Mary was homesick.	Mary wanted very much to go home.

Ways to describe language. Language has:

1. Phonology

Phonology is the study of the sounds of the language.

a. There are 44 phonemes in the English language. (Sources differ: 40, 44, 45, 47.)

b. Differences in sounds are how we know on given occasions what is being said.

c. Minimal pairs are two words with only one phonemic difference. A phonemic difference is one that changes meaning. (Pick-pig; map-mat; big-pig.)

d. Accent patterns also change meanings. (A blue bird is not necessarily a bluebird.)

e. The phoneme-grapheme relationships are often confusing in English because five vowels have many variant spellings.

f. The suprasegmentals of stress, pitch, and juncture convey distinct phonemic differences.

2. Morphology

Morphology is the study of the structure of words. The important structures in elementary school communication are:

a. Compound words.

b. Inflectional endings including er, est, ed, ing, s, es.

c. Prefixes and suffixes.

d. The common Greek and Latin combining forms.

e. Reversible compound words: A <u>pocket watch</u> is not a <u>watch pocket</u>.

3. Syntax

Syntax is the grammar of the language. Grammar is the set of rules governing the use of the language so that people can communicate meaningfully with each other.

a. Basic sentence patterns:
   (1) Noun-transitive verb-object
   (2) Noun-linking verb-predicate noun or adjective
   (3) Noun-verb-prepositional phrase

b. Variations:
   (1) Making negative answers
   (2) Choosing "or"
   (3) Expansions

c. Transformations:
   (1) "There" changes
   (2) "Question" changes
   (3) Question words
   (4) Passive transforms
   (5) Changing verbs to nouns
   (6) Combining kernel sentences
   (7) Using <u>until</u>, <u>if</u>, <u>because</u>
   (8) Changing to past
   (9) Tag-on questions

4. Semantics

Semantics is the study of the meanings communicated through language.

a. English is a hybrid language containing much word borrowing from many languages.

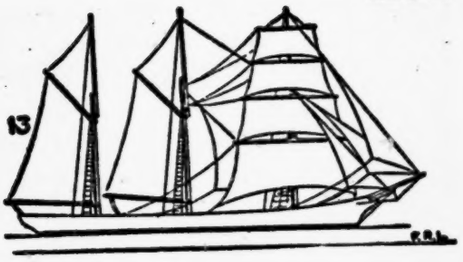
b. The listener or the reader must rely on context clues; meanings depend upon context.

c. The language contains many figures of speech, idiomatic expressions and slang expressions.

d. The vocabulary contains antonyms, heteronyms, homographs, homonyms, synonyms.

e. Suprasegmentals, which are phonemic because they change meanings, are also semantic in communicating meaning changes.

Sheep



Ship

Bit

Beet

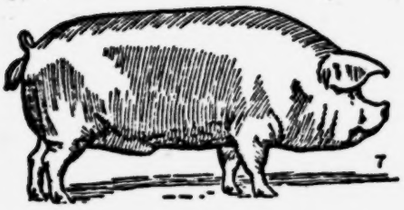
Pear

Bear

Pea

Bee

Minimal pairs are words that contain only one phoneme that is <u>not</u> the same.



Hog

Hawk

Butterfly Net

Birds Nest

Wasp's Nest

Pig

Ice Pick

Pickax

Minimal pairs are words that contain only one phonemen that is <u>not</u> the same.

Was that the green house?	Was it a green color?
Was that the Green house?	Do the Greens live there?
Was that the greenhouse	A place where plants are nurtured the year around.
I saw a blue bird.	The bird I saw was a blue color.
I saw a bluebird.	It was a bluebird.
Bob said he saw a horse fly.	The horse had wings.
Bob said he saw a horsefly.	A fly that bothers horses.

And in these:

I scream	Send them aid	Night rate	lighthouse keeping
Ice cream	Send the maid	nitrate	light housekeeping

7. Structure Words:

Words that have no referent are called "empty" words or "structure" words. It is estimated that there are no more than 300 such words in English but they comprise nearly half of all of the running words in elementary context. This underscores the need for mastering them as service words as early in the reading process as possible. They are termed "markers" for the type of structural element they precede:

Noun markers:	a, the, some, any, three, this, my, few . . .
Verb markers:	am, are, is, was, have, has, had . . .
Phrase markers:	up, down, in, out, above, below . . .
Clause markers:	if, until, because, that, how, when . . .
Question markers:	who, why, how, when, what, where . . .

These little words have been called, in addition to "empty" or "structure" words, "signal" words, "glue" words or "service" words. In and of themselves, they do not convey meaning and they do not fit any linguistic pattern for teaching. They must be taught early because they are the necessary connectors. They play a significant part in helping the reader to anticipate meanings which verbs or nouns following will carry in a given sentence structure. (Newsome)

8. Gesture: The Unspoken Language.

With a quick twist of the wrist, a Lebanese taxi driver can convey utter contempt for a traffic policeman. A South American may show admiration for a beautiful woman by opening one eye wide with thumb and forefinger. An American Indian warrior could indicate sadness by making the sign for heart, then drawing his hand down and toward the ground. He signified "friend" by putting his two forefingers together, symbolizing brothers in each other's company ("Gesture -- The Unspoken Language").

Contrastive Analysis of Spanish and English

Most teachers of native Spanish speakers in classrooms where English is the medium of instruction have heard sentences like the following:

"We went through the rooms bigs," "Mary is wear a dress red," "He no

go to school," "Yesterday your brother I say," "I am ready for to read," "I see you later," "Is Tuesday," and "This apple is more big than that one."

The following contrasts in structure are taken from Teaching English as a New Language to Adults:

Native English Speaker	Spanish-Speaker learning English
The use of not with the verb forms: "Mary is not here."	Usually replaced by "no": "Mary is no here."
The use of "s" in our simple present: "The boy eats."	Verbs are fully inflected. Learning our comparatively uninflected English, the student tends to drop even the inflections which persist, to say: "The boy eat."
Negatives with do, does, did: "He did not go to school."	No auxiliaries exist: The tendency is to say: "He no go/went to school."
English adjectives usually precede the noun: "The red dress."	Adjectives usually follow the noun: "The dress red."
Going to to express future time: "I am going to sing."	Tendency is to substitute the simple present: "I go to sing."
The auxiliary will in our future: "I will see you later."	Tendency is to carry over the inflection and to say: "I see you later."
The use of it to start a sentence: "It is Tuesday."	Tendency to make the omission of it and to say: "Is Tuesday."
Use of to be to express age: "I'm twenty years old."	To have is used: "I have twenty years."
Use of to be to express hunger, thirst, etc.: "I am thirsty."	To have is the more common usage: "I have hunger." "I have thirst."
Our negative imperative: "Don't run!"	Replaced by no: "No run!"
Questions with do, does, and did: "Does this man work?"	No auxiliaries exist in Spanish. Tendency is to say: "This man works?" or "Works this man?"
Indefinite article in usual prenominal position with words identifying occupation: "She is a nurse."	Indefinite article not required in such usages; tendency is to say: "She is nurse."

Some Spanish-English pronunciation problems include:

For:	The child is apt to say:
Consonants:	
"th" in thumb, path	"s" as in sin, sink, and pass
"j" as in judge	"ch" as in church
"th" in though and this	"d" as in dough and dis
"sh" in she and shoe	"s" as in sea and sue
"s" in pleasure, treasure	simply as "s"
voiced "s" in zinc, zoo	"s" as in sing, rice, and Sue
"b" in bar, rabbit, cab	"p" in par, rapid, cap
"v" in vote, vail, vest	"b" in boat, bail, best
"d" in din and den	"t" in ten and tin
"ch" in watch and chew	"sh" in wash, cash, and shoe
"u" in use and yellow	"j" in juice and jello
final "m" in comb, dime	as "n" in cone, line, and son
"g" in dug, goat, pig	as "c" in duck, coat, and pick
"w" as in way, wash	preceded by "g" - guay, guash
Vowels:	
hat, cat, mat	hot, cot, mop or het, ket, mep
don, sung, cut	dawn, song, caught
leave, feel, sheep	live, fill, ship
late, mate, gate	let, met, get
pool and fool	pull and full
coal, bowl, hole	call, ball, hall

The student will learn the differences between the sound structure of his native language and the second language. The greater the influence of the minority culture, the longer it will take him to adapt to the new environment. The greater the contrast between the sound

systems of the native tongue and the new language, the greater the effort required in learning to produce the new sounds. After the sounds have been mastered, the tedious trial and error process of learning the syntactic, semantic, and psycholinguistic elements which encompass the whole world -- figuratively and literally--may begin. The second language learner acquires the new language through the process of imitation and mimicry. He learns first the significant sounds then the sound patterns, words and phrases. The bilingual doesn't hear the new phonemes until they have been carefully illustrated, produced, and drilled. As he learns these sounds, the bilingual has difficulty remembering when and where to use them, and he often forgets those he has learned.

The child who is placed in a second language learning situation acquires the new tongue with a speed and accuracy that is amazing to struggling adult and adolescent learners. The child is not self-conscious: he is intellectually and linguistically more flexible; and his need for communication is not so great as the adults. "His experience and his vocabulary are much limited in his own language and it takes him comparatively little time to gain control of an equivalent vocabulary in the new language." (Fries) The adult who has internalized his native tongue will perhaps never acquire and rely on the second language as the child will. The following sounds are rare or absent in Southwest Indian languages. (Shen)

/v/ very	/ð/ this	/ʤ/ or /ʒ/ pleasure
/f/ find	/θ/ think	/r/ robe

These sounds exhibit phonetic features markedly different from English. (Shen)
p, t, k, and h.

A brief summary of the problem areas involved in English learning by southwestern Indians follows: (Dozier)

1. The phonemes /p/ (pan), /t/ (tan), and /k/ (can) will sound like the English /b/ (ban), /d/ (dan), and /g/ (gan).

2. /p'/, /t'/, and /k'/ are glottalized sounds present in most southwestern Indian languages.

3. Students will have trouble with the English dipthongs /ey/ and /ow/, specifically, as well as dipthongs in general.

4. The Indian languages have voiceless vowels, especially in final position.

Chapter III
CLASSROOM METHODOLOGY

Describing Language in TESOL

"Meaning bearing utterances" must be practiced in meaningful, functional, pleasant, and rewarding circumstances. Children work with all the changes in sentence patterns for developing ease in fluency and establishing habits. Substitution drills, question-answer practice, deletions and combinations, and dialog practice provide ways both to habituate patterns and to teach intonation, stress, pitch, and juncture. Any sequenced program requires stimulating experiences, rewards for the use of language, audio-visual materials, field trips, and maximum exposure to "talk" in English.

The basic principle for teaching English to speakers of other languages is: The learner acquires the ability to use the language communication skills of English in order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. First, he hears with understanding; second, he reproduces the language he has heard--trying to imitate a "good" model; third, he is then ready to learn to read that part of the language he has heard and spoken; and fourth, he can then learn to spell and write the language he needs to use, but only after he has heard, spoken, and read it.

1. Habitual use of the most frequently used patterns and items of language should take precedence over the mere accumulation of words. The acquisition of vocabulary should be a secondary goal at the beginning state. Vocabulary will increase rapidly when reading is begun. To reiterate the same principle--because it is of utmost importance--learning a foreign language is not primarily acquiring vocabulary, necessary as that is. It is much more important for the student to engage in practice which will most quickly form habits of articulation, of stress, of intonation, of word-order, and of word formation. The sooner these patterns become habit and not choice, the sooner he will achieve mastery of the language.

2. Vocabulary should be taught and practiced only in the context of real situations so that meaning will be clarified and reinforced.

Each classroom teacher is confronted with problems of classroom management, of motivation of learning, and of articulating this year's work with last year and next year. Within the class, the teacher must expect to find the normal range of abilities in intellectual, physical, emotional, and social development.

There are a number of principles about learning that the teacher needs to understand, accept, and use in interpreting the school success of individual children.

> When the teacher and child meet, a major part of the teacher's armament must be a knowledge of the principles of learning. Many normal children learn readily

in spite of the repeated violations of learning principles. By sharpening our awareness of some of these principles, as applied in teaching children, we can practice better adherence to them.

Some of these major principles of learning include overlearning, ordering, and sizing (programming) of new material, rewarding only desired responses, frequent review, and avoidance of interference and negative transfer. (Bateman)

Some Methodology in Teaching a Second Language

Language has three basic relationships besides transformations:

(1) Function, i.e., objects, prepositional phrases, indirect objects

(2) Agreement of number and person

(3) Placement, clearly understood use of antecedents

The process of TESOL methodology include:

(1) Substitutions

(2) Ordering

(3) Deletions

(4) Expansions

Substitution and expansion are illustrated below.

Substitution for oral practice:

In the following examples the teacher models, "The school is just around the corner." The class repeats. Small groups and then individuals repeat. Then the teacher says only the word "store" and the class repeats, "The store is just around the corner." The teacher says "restaurant", and the class repeats, "The restaurant is just around the corner," etc.

1.	The	school store restaurant post office department store house apartment	is just around the corner.

2. Please ask Jack to		turn the light off. turn the light on. leave the light alone. turn on the light. put the light on the table.
3. How many	chairs desks pictures boys girls people tables	are there in that room?

Expansion Sentences:

Basic sentence patterns are, of course, made to serve their purposes more clearly for speakers by being expanded. Boys and girls who are native speakers of the language expand sentences easily and unconsciously. They generate successively connected ideas in "run-on" sentences; if their speech were written down there would be long paragraphs without periods to divide them into sentences. Speakers of non-standard English will need a great deal of help with these exercises.

Ex. 1:	
	dogs bark
	dogs bark loudly.
The people's	dogs bark loudly.
The people's	dogs bark loudly every night.
We could hear the people's	dogs bark loudly every night.
We could hear the people's	dogs bark loudly every night when we were at grandmother's house.

Ex. 2:	
The roses	are beautiful.
The red roses	are beautiful.
The red roses by my window	are beautiful.

I gave the red roses by my window to the elderly couple that lives next door.

Ex. 3:	
I can play.	
I can play	this afternoon.
I can play	this afternoon for a while.
I can play	until five o'clock this afternoon.

Ex. 4: Jack and his father stopped in the hardware store to look for some screen wire that they could use to make a cage for the two white rats Jack was planning to use in his feeding experiment in general science in school.

Transformations:

Transformation in English grammar is the means by which basic sentence structures are changed, or modified, into other types of structures. So the sentence, "There are four chairs in the room." can be transformed into a question by changing the positions of "there" and "are" and asking, "Are there four chairs in the room?"

Roberts' basic sentence patterns in transformational grammar are presented below. The primacy of practice in the basic types is that all

English sentences are derived, by various changes and combinations, from a few basic sentence types:

1. "There" transformations:

Statements:	Questions:
A man is at the door. There is a man at the door	Is there a man at the door?
The day is warm. It is a warm day.	Is it a warm day?
The job is a tough one. It's a tough job.	Is it a tough job?
Four chairs are at the table. There are four chairs at the table.	Are there four chairs at the table?
Three boys are in the principal's office. There are three boys in the principal's office.	Are there three boys in the principal's office?

2. Question transformations:

He is at school. Is he at school?

He reads fast. (He does read fast.) Does he read fast? (This sentence requires the intermediate step to provide the verb to change positions with the subject.

He is going now. Is he going now?

3. Question transformations supplying the question word:

Statements:	Asking the question the statement answers:
John works here.	Who works here?
Robert lives in Arizona.	Where does Robert live?
The books should have cost ten dollars.	How much should the books have cost?
Bill is in his office.	Where is Bill?
He studies geography	What does he study?
He works in an office.	What does he do?
He studies in the afternoon.	When does he study?
He writes letters at night.	When does he write letters?

4. Passive transformations:

Active voice:	Passive voice:
They built a house	The house was built by them.
John shot a deer.	A deer was shot by John.
Our country fought a civil war.	A civil war was fought by our country.
The third grade worked that problem.	That problem was worked by the third grade.
The old man planted the garden	The garden was planted by the old man.

5. Transformations where the verb is changed to a noun:

John works.	John is a worker.
Julio gardens.	Julio is a gardener.
Mary teaches	Mary is a teacher.
Ramon farms.	Ramon is a farmer.
Enrique drives a truck.	Enrique is a truck driver.
Mr. Jones practices law.	Mr. Jones is a lawyer.
Marianna cooks.	Marianna is a cook.
Mrs. Chacon makes dresses.	Mrs. Chacon is a dressmaker.
Mr. Acosta plays chess.	Mr. Acosta is a chess player.
Larry studies at the university.	Larry is a student.

6. Combining kernel sentences into one sentence:

(a) Coordination of simple sentences: (1) It is the end of summer. School will begin soon. - to - It is the end of summer and school will begin soon. (2) Girls work. Boys play. - to - Girls work and boys play.
(b) Coordination - omitting repeated words: The teacher was fair. The teacher was helpful. The teacher was completely honest. - to - The teacher was fair, helpful, and completely honest.
(c) Subordination of a clause: (1) The book was <u>The Wind in the Willows</u>. The book was lost. - to - The book which was lost was <u>The Wind in the Willows</u>. (2) The man in the library reads most every evening. He knows a great deal about Mexico. - to - The man who reads in the library most every evening knows a great deal about Mexico. (3) Some pupils know the story already. They should not tell the ending. - to - Some pupils who know the story already should not tell the ending.

7. Combining parts of sentences using <u>because</u>, <u>until</u>, <u>when</u>, etc.:

Teacher:	Child:
I came home early. The library was closed.	I came home early because the library was closed.
The farmer didn't plant potatoes. The ground was too wet.	The farmer didn't plant potatoes because the ground was too wet.

Mother complained. I didn't help get dinner.	Mother complained because I didn't help get dinner.
I didn't finish. The bell rang.	I didn't finish because the bell rang.
I can't go with you. My homework isn't finished.	I can't go with you until my homework is finished.
I have to wait. I get paid on Friday.	I have to wait until I get paid on Friday.
I can't buy the groceries. She didn't give me the list.	I can't buy the groceries until she gives me the list.
I'll stay here. The library stays open.	I'll stay here if the library stays open.
Jose will work every day. His brother can work too.	Jose will work every day if his brother can work too.

8. Changing to the past tense:

Present:	Past:
I go to work.	I went to work.
I need help.	I needed help.
I walk to class.	I walked to class.
I bring my books.	I brought my books.
I eat lunch at school.	I ate my lunch at school.
I work.	I worked.
He works.	He worked.
She works.	She worked.
You work.	You worked.
We work.	We worked.
They work.	They worked.
I go.	I went.
He goes.	He went.
Did you tear your shirt?	Yes, I tore it.
Did you pay your bill?	Yes, I paid it.
Did you choose that tie?	Yes, I chose it.
Did you buy that car?	Yes,I bought it.
Did you find your room key?	Yes, I found it.

9. Tag-on questions:

You can go, can't you?	You can't go, can you?
He has the book, hasn't he?	He doesn't have the book, does he?

He is working today, isn't he?	He isn't working today, is he?
He was in your office, wasn't he?	He wasn't in your office, was he?
He will come back soon, won't he?	He won't come back soon, will he?
You wash it every day.	You do wash it every day, don't you?
He cleans his room every day.	He does clean his room every day, doesn't he?
George takes it with him.	George does take it with him every day, doesn't he?
Mary practices her music.	Mary does practice her music, doesn't she?
They collect the papers.	They do collect the papers, don't they?

Chapter IV

SPECIAL ASPECTS OF VOCABULARY

Through several years of personal observation, it has been both rather amazing and frightening to see dozens of classrooms of mixed ethnic groups in elementary, junior high, and senior high classrooms utilizing traditional textbooks devised for unilingual, English-speaking, middle class students with the teacher carrying out a traditional lesson plan as if all the students were profiting from the lesson. Even casual, friendly conversations with the boys and girls from minority ethnic groups whose first language was not English, or observing the teacher in the room carrying on an interminable monologue, is convincing evidence that much of the English is very difficult to understand and the student has too limited language-power to make use of the written text for study with comprehension.

Without first mastering the sound system of the language, the student gets hopelessly lost and if he stays in school, his achievement level drops further and further below that of the English speaking students.

To demonstrate in an empirical manner that the language was severely limited, a number of language tests were devised and administered to large groups of these boys and girls. Selected results are reported here.

In 1959, Yandell prepared an idioms test of ninety multiple-choice items based on statements taken directly from readers used in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades. The Indian and Spanish-speaking sixth grades boys and girls performed at such comparable low levels in comparison with unilingual English-speaking sixth graders, it was clear they could not possibly read contexts containing these idioms with comprehension. It is clear now, that this test and those to be discussed, were not adequate for assessing difficulties in language acquisition among these second language learners because they tested highly complex levels of language ability. Mastery of idiomatic expressions, multiple meanings of words, simple analogies, and antonyms was frequently not attained even by college students of Indian or Spanish linguistic background. What the tests did demonstrate clearly was that these groups were severely educationally retarded because of language disability. Sample items from the idioms test follow:

1. Then, as if he were rooted to the spot, Tom stood still, overcome with surprise.
   a. touching the ground
   b. right on the spot
   c. unable to move
   d. with his foot in a hole
2. Tom was tired enough to drop in his tracks, as his grandpa used to say.
   a. to drop his load
   b. to follow the tracks
   c. stop where he was without moving
   d. to follow in his footsteps

3. Go no faster than a trot, and keep your head about you.
   a. keep your head with you
   b. hold your head still
   c. stay awake
   d. be sensible and act wisely
4. When you are boarding around doing a little of this kind of work and a little of that, you grow sick and tired of being a Jack-of-all-trades.
   a. being good at all trades
   b. doing a little of all kinds of work
   c. restless like a Jack-in-the-box
   d. not doing any work well

Cox prepared a 100-item test of multiple meanings of common words and administered it to sixth grade students from all the minorities with the same results. Repeated administration of this test in unilingual, English-speaking, middle class neighborhoods shows an average class median for the middle class Anglo children of 87 raw-score points while Spanish-American sixth graders with second language interference achieved a median score of 58. The mean scores for the three Indian groups were: Apache, 62; Navajo, after direct teaching, 58, and Pueblo, 44. The following are sample items from the multiple meanings test developed by Cox:

1. a.place where liquor is sold b. fasten c. ale d. barrier e. the court
   _____1. Don't bar the door.
   _____2. The men had a drink in the bar.
   _____3. The class constructed a sand bar.
   _____4. The lawyer pleaded the man's case at the bar.
2. a. snouts b. chests c. axle d. shorts e. bases
   _____1. The athletes wore white trunks.
   _____2. They bore holes in the trunks of the trees.
   _____3. The elephants picked up the sugar with their trunks.
   _____4. Trunks of gold were found in the cave.
3. a. square designs b. figures c. ticket showing price d. mark e. control.
   _____1. She placed a red check on the best paper.
   _____2. The matron had to keep check of the girls.
   _____3. She prefers checks to stripes.
   _____4. The man waited until the waitress gave him his dinner check.
4. a. lower b. remove c. weapon d. knotted ribbon e. front of a ship
   _____1. They have learned to use a bow and arrow.
   _____2. Janet always wears a bow in her hair.
   _____3. The minister asked them to bow their heads as he prayed.
   _____4. Water seeped into the bow.

Candelelaria prepared a 75-item simple analogies test and sampled Anglo-American and Spanish surname students from a middle class area of the city, Spanish surname students from the lower socioeconomic area in the city, and Negro students from a downtown area. Mean raw scores of the four groups were Anglo: 60.5; Spanish-American middle class: 56.5;

Negro: 46; and Spanish surname lower class status: 42.5. The Spanish surname students whose parents move into the middle-class areas in Anglo neighborhoods are able to function significantly better in English than those living in low socioeconomic areas. Yet, the course of study recommended for the Spanish surname child in the low socioeconomic areas is the same as that recommended for the Anglo American child in the middle class school.

On tests prepared to measure responses to antonyms, simple analogies, and multiple meanings of words, fourth grade Anglo children who constituted norming groups, performed statistically significantly better than sixth grade students from the minority groups.

Lessons for Developing Aspects of Vocabulary

Teachers will be able to devise many lessons using various audio and visual aids to motivate language learning.

1. Using elementary stories and poems.

The poem "What is Black" by Louise Binder Scott could reinforce many meanings for the word black if the teacher gathers some pictures from the verticle picture file and some three dimension toys from ten-cent stores, drug stores, and department stores.

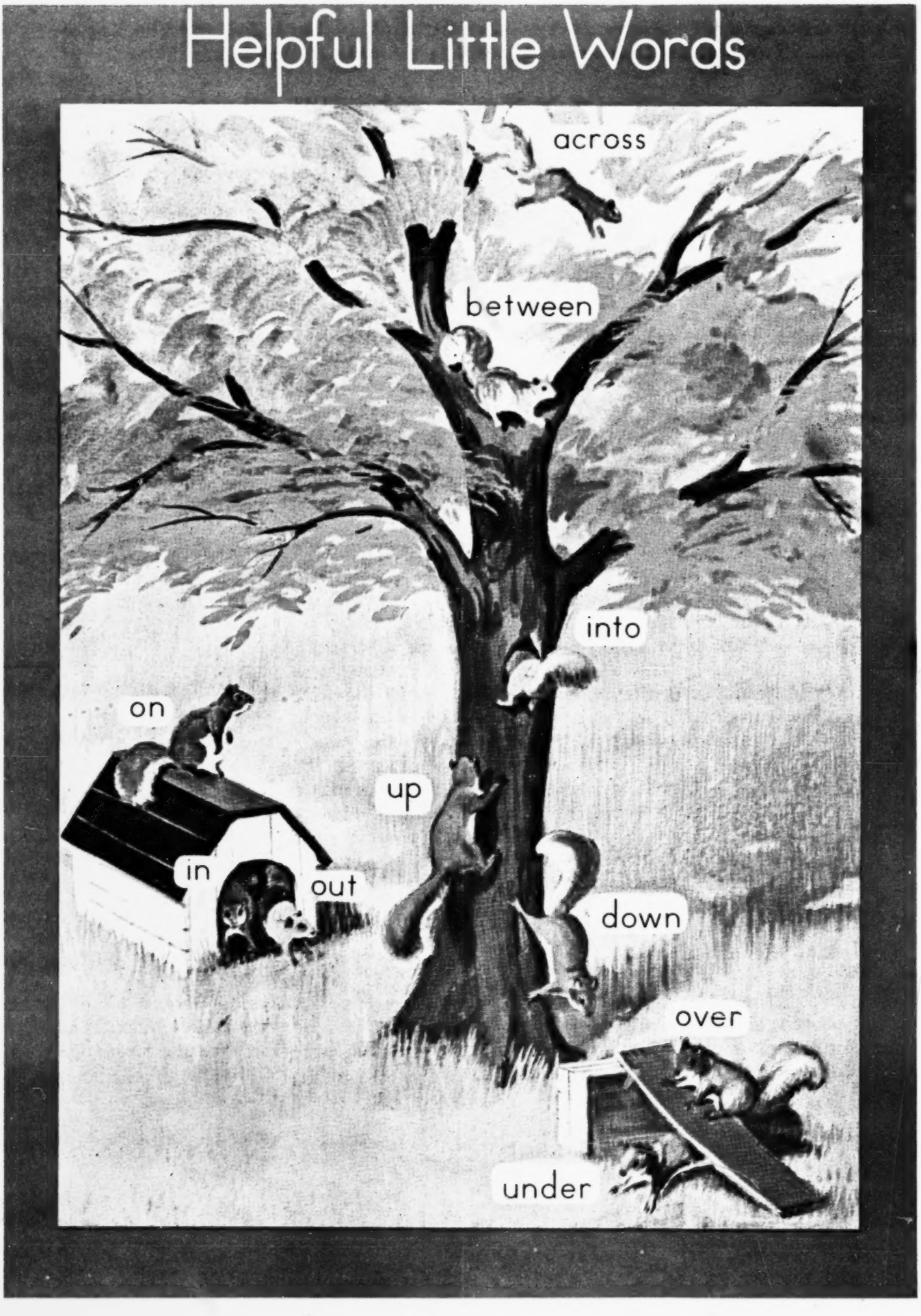
"What Is Black"

Black is good earth where little seeds grow;
Black is the bird that we call a crow.
Black is a berry which grows on a vine;
Black is the night, unless moon and stars shine.
Black are the shoes that you wear on your feet;
Black is the pepper on food that you eat.
Black is sweet licorice - yum, yum, yum!
Black is the spot of ink on your thumb.
Black is the skunk with stripe down his back;
Black is the engine that runs on a track.
Black is a fierce old Halloween cat;
Black is a witch's steeple hat.
Black is the marker with which you write;
Black is the opposite of white!

2. The picture illustrating helpful little words (see next page).

The illustration on the following page can make common prepositions meaningful and provide for review. The teacher must be careful to present such abstract words one at a time and "fix" their meanings so as not to confuse the child.

The common prepositions must be taught one at a time in meaningful situations and with sufficient review provided that the child used them confidently.



3. Finding matched pairs.

Cut pictures from magazines and catalogs and mount them on cards (3 by 5 or 4 by 6 size). Some possible pairs of pictures are:

cup - saucer	fork - knife	ball - bat
pen - pencil	boy- girl	shirt- tie
doll - doll buggy	chair - desk	comb - hair
broom - dust pan	light bulb - lamp	hammer - nail
pan - lid	ring - finger	football player - foot-ball
mare - colt	baker - cake	
hog - pigs	nose - face	fireman - fire truck
leaf - tree	paint - brush	mailman - letter

4. Association of opposites.

Cut pictures from reading readiness books and picture dictionaries and mount them. Some possible pairs of pictures are:

empty - full	left - right
in - out	large - small
inside - outside	on - off
above - below	tall - short

5. Seasons of the year.

Compile a stack of pictures that can be divided into summer, fall, winter and spring.

6. Action verbs.

Swinging, sitting, reading, pasting, cutting, playing, falling down, getting off of, reaching, falling, kneeling, running, standing, painting, leaning over, setting, jumping, flying, and sliding down.

7. Clothing we wear.

Putting in categories, pictures of all the things for mother, father, brother, and sister.

8. Tools we use.

Catalogs, such as Sears or Montgomery Ward, are excellent sources.

9. Dogs, toys, furniture, time pieces, kinds of chairs, kinds of lamps, ways we travel, domestic animals, dishes, money, sharp objects, musical instruments.

All these are categories of pictures that might be compiled in packets for different kinds of games or drills that might be planned with or without direct teacher supervision.

10. Multiple meaning words.

A second grade teacher asked the class to think of many uses of the word "track." (Marjorie F. Day).

"Track"

The word "track" was being discussed in the classroom in connection with a story regarding street cars. Some of the children had never seen a street car, so Bill, a city boy, said that they were cars that ran by electricity on tracks. When asked to describe what a track looked like, he said that it was a long steel thing that ran in two lines down the middle of the street. John, the "desert rat" with a puzzled look on his face, wanted to know what kind of tracks the car made. We got to talking about the words that looked the same, but meant different things, and it was suggested that each child tell what the word "track" meant to him.

Sharon said that many times her mother told her not to track up the clean kitchen floor. To her it meant to get something dirty. Melinda mentioned that she had heard her father discuss the sound track of his tape recorder. Steve contributed the fact that his father tracked a missile on a tracking board. Peter mentioned the new race track outside El Paso. Joe told of riding on a train which ran on tracks and how the wheels made a clicking sound as they went over the joints in the tracks. John told of the time that he had found coyote tracks in the snow and had tracked them to the boundary lines of the Post. Bruce, the slow-poke of the class, said that his mother had told him to make tracks for school that morning. "She meant me to hurry up," he said by way of explanation.

By the time we were through we had collected quite a few meanings for the word "track" and had learned a lesson in word comprehension. For as one child expressed it, "You have to know what you are reading about to know what the word means."

Recognizing the absence of language, and recognizing the failure of so many of these children, teachers need guidelines that will insure greater school success.

The following suggestions all center on the oral language emphasis to teach common language patterns, to provide experience units of work that can be carried out with the teacher doing what little writing needs to be done, and the children having much opportunity to talk about the experiences, to evaluate the problems involved, and to discuss freely what is going on in various situations.

Use of the Miami Linguistic Reading Series

The Miami Linguistic Readers attempt to give the teacher specific materials for sequential language lessons out of which learning to read can be accomplished. In the linguistic readers, one primary emphasis is on teaching the child to pronounce the English language correctly. This is excellent. He is given a great deal

of practice on discriminating minimal pairs and enunciation to all of the phonemes that exist in English that he has not already learned in Spanish. The Miami Linguistic Readers do, if the manual is followed, make sure that the child has aural-oral control of the material he is going to try to read.

Some teachers have progressed through only two or three books of the Miami Linguistic Readers in one year when working with children who know little English at the beginning. This demonstrates excellent judgment on the part of the teacher. The language program for such children must include concentrated teaching of oral language all day long withholding formal reading until the boys and girls can learn with understanding to read the books in the series.

A linguistic approach to beginning reading for bilingual children (English and Spanish languages) and planned as a two-year program, the Miami Linguistic Reader Series follows linguistic, as well as pedagogical premises: (Robinett).

1. The referential content of beginning reading material must deal with those things which time has shown are interesting to children.
2. The materials must reflect the natural language forms of children's speech.
3. The child must have aural-oral control of the material he is expected to read.
4. The focus must be on the process of reading as a thinking process rather than on the uses of reading after decoding has been mastered.
5. Sound-symbol correspondences (phoneme-grapheme relationships) in beginning reading should be in terms of spelling patterns.
6. Grammatical structure as well as vocabulary must be controlled.
7. Children must learn to read by structures if they are to master the skills involved in the act of reading.
8. The learning load in linguistically oriented materials must be determined in terms of the special nature of the materials.
9. Writing experiences reinforce listening, speaking, and reading.
10. Materials must be sequenced so that they enable the learner to achieve success as he progresses through the materials.

The Miami Linguistic Readers have been developed specifically to help children learn to read in English when they must master the English sound system and the English spoken language as a second language. This series bears no relation to those "linguistic readers" mentioned previously. They have proved to be very effective in the hands of capable, creative teachers, especially those with competency in teaching English as a second language.

Craker studied the personal pronoun occurrences in recommended instructional talk in three reading readiness programs. Craker's purpose was to investigate the extent to which authors of reading readiness programs assume listening comprehension using the personal pronouns of the English language. She counted the personal pronouns and their frequency of occurrence in the first twenty pages of reading readiness instruction in teacher's manuals. She selected the Bank Street Readers, the Scott, Foresman Readers, and the Miami Linguistic Readers. The twenty-three personal pronouns were not all used in any series; Scott, Foresman used seventeen, Bank Street Readers used sixteen, and Miami Linguistic Readers used six.

The Scott, Foresman program designed for middle class children provides much "teacher talk," utilizes pronouns in a greater range of grammatical form, case, and number.

Bank Street Readers are designed for inner city children with culturally disadvantaged backgrounds, reduces the listening load, and makes more limited use of pronouns in kernal sentence slots. However, it uses almost as many different pronouns as the Scott, Foresman.

Miami Linguistic Readers were designed for non-English speaking children with Spanish language background. This series has controlled the use of pronouns to use one pronoun in several sentences and to avoid ambiguities in pronoun use. This finding supports the principle that linguistically, the Miami Readers are sequenced to aid the child learning English as a second language by limiting the structures presented to him in early lessons.

Chapter V

THE BILINGUAL SCHOOL

The term "bilingual" implies proficiency in two languages and the ability to participate in two cultures. Thus, the primary objectives of a bilingual program are language acquisition and cultural pluralism. Learning a second language is one method of increasing understanding across cultures. The contrasts between the Apache, Pueblo, or Navajo Indian, Spanish-American, or Mexican cultures and the dominant Anglo culture are clearly observable. Cultural diversity has contributed to the difficulty in formulating concise and unambiguous goals and objectives for a bilingual program.

In present day America, understanding the dominant culture is necessary. However, this understanding need not be viewed as the destruction of a minority culture, but rather as the harmonious controlled interaction between two cultures.

Children of minority ethnic groups, as a total population, have the same mental abilities as other children. Socio-economic status has proved to be an important variable in acculturation.

The major objectives of the bilingual program are:

1. The learner will become more proficient in his own oral and written language as well as in the second language.

2. The learner's achievement and aspiration levels will be raised through the program.

3. The learner will be recognized as one who represents "a culture within a culture."

4. The learner will be more capable of accepting democratic principles as a social process.

5. The school environment will become more adept at encouraging the bilingual to demonstrate the values of both the new and the old cultures.

6. The school will provide programs for children of different cultures.

7. The learner will become more proficient in oral language development in both languages.

8. A plan for optimum individual development will be provided through various types of teaching techniques.

9. The school environment will provide an atmosphere of understanding which encourages the learner to develop

all facets of his personality.

10. The guidance program will aid the bilingual in seeking an preparing for success in both cultures.

11. The learner's self concept will be constantly considered by the school.

12. The society which the learner accepts as a second culture will recognize the value of bilingualism.

Principles Which Relate to Bilingual Schools

1. Instruction in the first years of school should begin in the mother tongue. This has been the practice in most countries around the world. (Monographs About Basic Education)

> ... There is general agreement all over the educational world that the child should begin his education in his mother tongue or...the language he most easily understands. (Haarhoff)

Language is a physical, social, and cultural phenomenon that reflects intimately the physiology, the psychology, the social situation, and the culture of the individual that uses it. Around the world, there are many groups that need to acquire a second language that has national or international importance if their people are to be able to communicate broadly relative to economics, education, and welfare of the citizenry. At the same time, the beginnings of education can well employ the mother tongue and the curriculum of the school be designed to introduce the second language at an appropriate time in the child's education. Choosing the language for school beginners is most significant because of the interdependence of language and culture. They are inseparable. The child's initial involvement which he feels at school must grow out of the acceptance of his language and culture in the school situation. To these, he can relate.

2. Bilingualism need not adversely affect school achievement. It is that the achievement test results for the past four decades in the Southwest have demonstrated that boys and girls from non-English speaking homes fall further and further behind in achievement as they progress through the school. (Zintz, Education Across Cultures) However, Arsenian reported, after a broad survey of many studies, that bilingualism neither accelerates nor retards mental development. Natalie Darcy confirmed these findings. If the problem is not one of limited intelligence, then it becomes the responsibility of the school to find the causal factors and eliminate them.

Several studies listed in the Appendix evaluate the problems of language learning for bilingual students and offer support for the establishment of truly bilingual schools.

3. The emotional feelings about one's language are very important.

Language is personal. A fitting example has already been cited of the way in which people use one language as the language of government and economics and another language for the most personal exchange of ideas in the bilingual situation in Paraguay. While Spanish is the official language, almost all Paraguayans also speak Guarani.

4. To preserve a language, it needs to be used as a medium of instruction in the schools. Without instruction in literacy skills, each succeeding generation has less and less use for the original language of the group. If the minor language is widely used in another geographical area, there will be literature available, libraries, and the language will be used as the language of government and economy. This is true of the Spanish language spoken by many Southwesterners. South of the Rio Grande, there are some 200,000,000 Spanish speakers. Spanish is one of the twelve most used languages in the world.

5. While the members of a minor language group must learn the major language in order to function in the basic institutions of that society, (government, economy, education, welfare), the reverse of this is not true. The members of the majority language group do not have the same economic and social need to learn the minor language.

6. Native languages of minority groups are apt to be lost if: they serve no purpose in economics and commerce; radio and TV programs are not presented in that language; they are not used in the schools; there is no printed literature of importance in that language; and if progress in school places no reward on knowing that language.

What is a Bilingual School?

Few programs operate in public schools in the United States as bilingual, that is, putting two languages to work in the conduct of the school.

A bilingual school is one in which instruction during the school day is afforded in more than one language. This means that content subjects will be taught in both languages. One might study his mathematics in English and his history lesson in Spanish in a Spanish-English bilingual school. This is to be contrasted with studying Spanish for one period of the day as a foreign language with little attention given to that language except in the class period.

The only test results of educational achievement of the bilingual school in operation have been reported by Malherbe concerning Dutch-English bilingualism in South Africa. In statistics released in 1946, he reported that students in the secondary school divided themselves into three groups: those who were educated in English-speaking schools; those who were educated in Afrikaans-speaking schools; and a relatively small number educated in Afrikaans-English bilingual schools.

Malherbe tested about 18,000 students in three types of South African schools: Unilingual Afrikaans, Unilingual English, and

Bilingual Schools.

Some of his conclusions are:

> The main point . . . is that the figures show a clear advantage in favor of the bilingual school in regard to language attainment in both English and Afrikaans at all intelligence levels . . . the gains, though seemingly small, are all statistically significant.
>
> . . . those children with a bilingual home background who attend the bilingual medium school top the list, while right at the bottom of the list come the children with a unilingual home environment who attend a unilingual medium school.
>
> In geography the pupils in the bilingual school were, on an average, about four-fifths of a school year ahead of those in the unilingual school. In arithmetic they were half a year ahead.
>
> Adverse sectional discrimination is from three to four times as great in unilingual as in the bilingual schools. The children with bilingual home environment display the least adverse discriminating . . . The consistency of our data on the main issue leaves no doubt about the fact that in bilingual medium schools, where pupils of both sections mix and associate freely, the children display a comparatively low degree of intercultural antagonism. (Malherbe)

Davies writes about second language learning and describes one situation in Wales.

> "The supplementing of second language teaching by the study of another subject through its medium, is the only way in which the second language will ever come to life in unilingual environments, in South Africa or anywhere else. . . The mastery of a language must become subconscious, and this can never be achieved merely by studying that language in the language lesson only. . . World Geography is a possibility."
>
> A pleasing feature of parallel-medium or "two- stream" schools in Wales is their complete lack of separatism. The Primary School, Aberystwyth, reorganized in 1948, has 340 pupils, of whom 225 are English and 115 Welsh-speaking. The staff is bilingual, and the spirit of the school on the whole is Welsh, with Welsh the language of the staff and staff meetings. English is used as the medium of instruction for the English-speaking section throughout, with Welsh introduced as a subject in the second year and taught in every subsequent year. For the Welsh-speaking section, English is introduced during the second half of the first

year, the time devoted to it being increased during the second and subsequent years; by the third year, the medium of instruction has become 50% Welsh, 50% English, and by the fourth, equal facility in the use of both languages is aimed at. (Davies)

Peal and Lambert demonstrated that bilingual children are superior on both verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests when compared with monolinguals. They compared monolingual and bilingual groups of ten-year-old children who were students in six French schools in Montreal, Canada. Their groups were matched on age, sex, and socio-economic status. They concluded that their bilingual subjects had greater mental flexibility than did the monolingual children and in addition demonstrated a superiority in concept formation.

Rojas reported at the end of the 1964-65 school year about a bilingual school in Miami:

> The bilingual school has two groups of Spanish-speaking pupils and two of English-speaking pupils in grades one through four with eight native Spanish-speaking teachers and eight native English-speaking teachers. English is the medium of instruction for all pupils for approximately half of each day; and Spanish, the medium of instruction for all pupils during the other half. Next year the fifth grade will be added and the following year the sixth. The expectation is that at the end of the sixth grade both groups of pupils will know the two languages well enough to operate effectively in both.

Modiano did a comparative study of two approaches to the teaching of reading in the national language. Modiano studied reading achievement to native Indians in the Chiapas highlands in southern Mexico where some of the Indian children are taught to read first in their native Indian languages while others are immediately taught in Spanish. In each of three tribal areas studied, the researcher found significantly better reading ability among children who were first taught to read in their original language.

Modiano's findings are applicable to all schools, and to test this hypothesis she urges experimental programs to begin in regions in the United States having large linguistic minorities. No school system in the nation now employs the native language first approach.

Materials for Spanish-English Bilingual Schools

(1) The following brief bibliography suggests sources from which school administrators may select:

Laidlaw Brothers, Inc. River Forest, Illinois, Angeles Paston, et. al. Por el Mundo del cuento y la aventura,, Serie de textos basicos para Hispanoamerica, 1962.

Sorpresas y maravillas	Libro II, Nivel II
Por esos caminos	Libro III
Nuestro mundo maravilloso	Libro IV
Aventuras por mundos desconocidos	Libro V
Una mirada al pasado	Libro VI

Puertas de la Luz, Angeles Pastor, et. al., Una serie de libros de lectura para los tres primeros grados, 1959 - 1962.
Campanillitas Folkloricas
Esta era una vez bajo las palmeras
Esta era una vez bajo los yagrumos

Personal del programa de salud, por Edwina Jones, Paul Landis, Edna Morgan, and Thelma Shaw, six book series for Grades I - VI.

A series of arithmetic books with teacher's editions have also been published by Laidlaw

(2) La Serie Meso-America, Regional Office for Central America and Panama, ODECA, El Salvador, San Salvador.
(a) A reading series finished through the fifth grade.
(b) An arithmetic series finished through fourth grade.
(c) A social studies series in preparation.
(d) A language series in preparation.
(e) A science series in preparation.

(3) Serie Educativa de Ciencia Basica, por Bertha Morris Parker, (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1958).

24 titles are available, for example:
La vida a traves de las edades

(4) Serie de libros de lectura, (San Jose, Costa Rica: Editorial Las Americas, 1959).

Flor nueva	I y II grados
Mi pequeno mundo	II grado
Leer y hacer	III grado
Patria grande	IV grado
Madre America	V grado
La tierra y el hombre	VI grado
Nuestro pais	III o IV grado

(5) Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, Panamerican Union Building, Washington, D. C., 1962.

Serie de Civismo
Serie de Agricultura
Serie de salud
Serie de economia y asuntos sociales
Serie de conocimientos basicos
Serie de recreacion
Serie de didactica

Library Books and Magazines:

(1) Pequenos Libros de Oro, (Donato Guerra, No. 9, Mexico 1, D.F.: Editorial Novaro, 1962).

Creaciones de Walt Disney, 21 titles

Producciones Diversas, 66 titles

(2) Novelas, (Tlacoquemecatl, 73, Mexico, D.F.: Editorial Diana, S.A.).

(3) Classics of Spanish Literature, (200 Park Avenue, South New York 3, New York: Latin American Institute Press, 1963).

Lope De Vega, Fuenteovejuna, with a vocabulary load of only 875 words.

(4) Caminos, Colegio Americana, Apartado Postal No. 83, Guatemala, Guatemala, C.A. Magazine published September through May.

(5) Scholastic Magazines, Inc., 50 West 44th St., New York, New York. 10036

Que Tal?
Hoy Dia
El Sol

SELECTED BILINGUAL READINGS FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

1. Macnamera, J. Bilingualism and Primary Education: A Study of Irish Experience. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 1966.

2. Macnamara, J. "The Effects of Instruction in a Weaker Language." Journal of Social Issues. 23:120-134. 1967

3. Modiano, Nancy. "National or Mother Language in Beginning Reading: A Comparative Study." Research in Teaching of English. 1:32-43. 1968.

4. The Study of Problems of Teaching English to American Indians. Washington D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1967.

5. Gaarder, A. Bruce. "Organization of the Bilingual School." Journal of Social Issues. 23:110-120. 1967

6. Johnson, B.H. Navajo Education at Rough Rock. Rough Rock, Arizona: D.I.N.E., Inc., 1968.

7. Richardson, Mabel W., "An Evaluation of Certain Aspects of the Academic Achievement of Elementary Pupils in a Bilingual Program," University of Miami, Doctoral Dissertation, Coral Gables, Florida, 1968.

8. "Bilingualism and the Bilingual Child: A Symposium," Modern Language Journal. 49: 143-175; 220-239, 1965.

APPENDIX

Chapter I

An Annotated Bibliography of Cross-Cultural Studies

Andersson, Theodore. "Foreign Language and Intercultural Understanding." National Elementary Principal. 36:32. February 1967.

The bilingual needs to be proud of his heritage. The techniques studied in several school systems revealed that there are signs of better communication and improved attitudes toward non-English cultures. The bilingual children studied in these school programs seemed to become more literate in both the Spanish and English languages.

Benham, William J. "Liaison: Key Word to School Program Completion." Journal of American Indian Education. 5:26-30; No. 2. January 1966.

Benham studied the extent to which public schools that serve Indian students are involving community and parents in relationship practices. The results indicated that better liaison practices are needed.

Bernardoni, Louis C. "Apache Parents and Vocational Choice." Journal of American Indian Education. 2:1-9; No. 2. January 1963.

The historical, cultural, and environmental factors which affected the stated vocational preferences of male White Mountain Apache students was studied here. Less than half the sample consisted of boys having both parents assuming the parental role. Those parents who hoped their sons would leave the reservation were significantly more acculturated than those parents who desired their sons to remain on the reservation. The conclusion stated that "Apache parents play a minimum role in vocation selection."

Christian, Chester C. Jr. "The Acculturation of the Bilingual Child." Modern Language Journal. 49:160-165; No. 3. March 1965.

Here the effect that insistence on spoken English had on bilingual children is studied. The problem of confusion and frustration which exists when a child learns one language and culture from his parents and then must learn another language and culture when he enters school is discussed. The author maintains the term "acculturation" refers to the destruction of one culture to gain a second culture. He suggested that education should attempt to involve the culture of the child in his education instead of forcing the child to strip himself of the minority culture.

Evvard, Evelyn and Mitchell, George C. "Sally, Dick and Jane at Lukachukai." Journal of American Indian Education. 5:2-6; No. 3. May 1966.

In attempting to find if the Scott, Foresman Basic Readers are adequate tools to teach Navajo children to read, Evvard and Mitchell discovered that these readers reflect middle class values of the white man. Differences between white and Indian concepts and values with respect to animals, pets, human personality, human expression, games, toys, and home cause minimum comprehension and maximum confusion. These concepts, alien to the Navajo, hinder content comprehension.

Fishman, Joshua A. "The Status and Prospects of Bilingualism in the United States." Modern Language Journal. 49:143-155. 1965.

Cultural pluralism may determine the success of this country. In this study, bilingualism and biculturalism are discussed. The author suggested that a commission on bilingualism and biculturalism be established at the federal, state, and local levels.

Haugen, Einar. "Problems of Bilingualism." Lingua. 2:271-290; No. 3. August 1950.

Social pressure becomes language pressure when one moves from one linguistic community to another. Linguistic conformity takes place when the learner has acclimated himself to the new environment. This article points out that the bilingual, in the process of learning, goes from "erratic substitution" to "systematic substitution" as he becomes more proficient in the new language.

Johnson, G.B. Jr. "Relationship Existing Between Bilingualism and Racial Attitude." Journal of Educational Psychology. 42:357-365; No. 5. May 1951.

Johnson measured the attitudes of bilingual male students toward the Anglo ethnic group and found that a profound knowledge of the Anglo culture or no knowledge of it yielded the least cultural prejudice.

Spang, Alonzo. "Counseling the Indian." Journal of American Indian Education. 5:10-15; No. 1. October 1965.

The cultural aspects that must be taken into account when counseling Indian students are reviewed here. Indians have little drive toward changing their lot. They have, as a group, a lack of information no role models, and no reason for achievement; there is no desire to earn much money because relatives will move in. Indians are present-time oriented and have a lack of time-consciousness. The counselor must be careful not to force his value system upon the Indian.

Tanaka, Yasmuasa and Osgood, C.E. "Cross-culture, Cross-concept, and Cross-subject Generality of Affective Meaning Systems." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 2:143-153; No. 2. August 1965.

Subjects with contrasting linguistic backgrounds were asked to judge twenty-four perceptual signs on ten semantic differential scales. Four semantic factors -- dynamism, evaluation, warmth, and weight were found to be the most salient for perceptual signs. The structure of meaning spaces for perceptual signs differs from the structure of those for linguistic signs. Scales relation were stable across groups, however, between sample consistency was higher within language-cultural boundaries than across them.

Ulibarri, Horacio. "Social and Attitudinal Characteristics of Migrant and Ex-Migrant Workers -- New Mexico, Colorado, Arizona, and Texas." ERIC. Ed. 011 215. 1964. p. 44

Ulibarri studied the feelings of the migrant worker or the bilingual person who has not acquired a great deal of formal education. This attitudinal study was conducted with migrant workers in regard to family, health, economics, government, children, religion, and recreation. These conclusions were drawn:

1. "The sample showed present-time reward expectations in all areas.
2. Great timidity and passivity were shown in the areas of education, health, and economics.
3. Satisfaction was shown in family life although the nuclear family had, in most cases, replaced the traditional extended family.
4. They were futilitarian about the education of their children.
5. They showed tendencies of resignation to their economic status.
6. The sample showed definite ethnocentric tendencies."

Ulibarri, Horacio. Teacher Awareness of Sociocultural Differences in Multicultural Classrooms. Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico Graduate School, 1959.

Teachers and administrators need to be aware of sociocultural differences as they affect the bilingual. Ulibarri's study showed a general lack of teacher sensitivity toward sociocultural differences.

Witherspoon, Paul. "A Comparison of the Problem of Certain Anglo and Latin-American Junior High School Students." Journal of Educational Research. 53:295-299; No. 8. April 1960.

Witherspoon found a general lack of teacher sensitivity toward sociocultural differences of the bilingual also. There are really more likenesses than differences between Anglos and bilinguals, but teachers, counselors, and administrators need to be aware of the main problems involved in the differences.

Zintz, Miles V. The Indian Research Study, Final Report. Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico, 1960.

Zintz attempted to identify the cultural, environmental influences on Indian children which must be understood for effective teaching, curriculum, teacher preparation, and parent understanding. Through teacher interviews, questionnaires, and diagnostic tests it was found that the Indian child in public schools is retarded culturally, verbally, and in scholastic achievement. Forced acculturation causes unacceptable reactions. Conflicts existed between cultures, environmental interpretation, values, and language concepts.

APPENDIX

Chapter II

Annotated Studies Related to The Nature of Language

Amsden, Constance. "Reading Program for Mexican-American Children, First Interim Report." ERIC. Ed 010 532. 1966 p. 10.

A program to develop oral language skills and to reinforce traditional cultural values of the Spanish-American community was designed by Amsden. Reading achievement and oral language development were assessed, and independent studies of the Spanish language proficiency of the children and Spanish influence on the children's oral English were undertaken. Emphasis on parent participation, individualized instruction, self-instruction, and cultural awareness were recommended to assure the children's academic progress and develop their sense of identity and self-esteem.

Diller, Edward. "The Linguistic Sequence in Learning Foreign Languages." Modern Language Journal. 46:259-260. October 1962.

The four skills in language learning are:

1. Listening: Preconditioning programs, language awareness of songs, poems, and recorded speeches, and listening for sound discriminations, comprehension, and significance.
2. Speaking: Mimicry-memorization, imitation, pattern drills, and spontaneous expression.
3. Reading: Recognition of patterns, contextual reading (finding the meaning of an unfamiliar word from contextual clues), and controlled reading.
4. Writing: Copying and matching exercises, writing from dictation, controlled writing and free expression (essays, letters, and reports).

The program is most successful when done in the above order and should not be hurriedly done.

Fries, Charles C. and Pike, Kenneth L. "Coexistent Phonemic Systems." Language. 25:29-51; No. 1. 1949.

Although two systems or languages may exist simultaneously, they must remain as two separate languages. Each system is observable and describable, yet unique and must be discussed in terms of its own traits without comparison to any other system.

Leighton, Roby. ed. "Bicultural Linguistic Concepts in Education." Educator's Complete ERIC Handbook, Phase One. 1967.

Intonation, pitch, juncture, and rhythm should be emphasized in oral communication. One of the major reasons Spanish and Indian students have difficulty with English as a second language is that they

experience basic confusion about the speech sounds of the language. Remedial programs should be built around this difficulty.

Norris, Mary Jane. "Linguistic Science and Its Classroom Reflections." Language Learning. 10:55-62; Nos. 1-2. 1960.

The elements of linguistic science are summarized into five points:

1. The realization of the nature of language:
    a. Language is vocal.
    b. Language symbols are arbitrary.
    c. Language has a system.
    d. Language is for communication.
    e. Language is made up of habits.
    f. There is a relation between language and the culture in which it is used.
    g. Language is dynamic.
    h. No two languages have the same set of patterns, or pronunciation, words, and syntax.
2. The realization that the habitual patterns of one language interferes with learning the patterns of another language.
3. Methods of analyzing and describing languages.
4. Descriptions of some languages.
5. Techniques for comparison of two languages.

APPENDIX

Chapter III

TESOL Text Materials

A brief list of textbook series available to the teacher for teaching English as a second language.

Bumpass, Faye L. We Learn English. New York: American Book Co., 1959. Six volumes.

Bumpass, Faye L. We Speak English. New York: American Book Co., 1967. Two volumes.

English Language Services, Inc. English This Way. New York: The MacMillan Co., 1965. Twelve textbooks in the series; teacher's guides available for Books I-IV and Books VII-XII.

English Language Services, Inc. English,900. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1964. Six textbooks in the series; teacher's guide for the series, and audio-tapes are available for each unit of each text.

Kane, John and Kirkland, Mary. Contemporary Spoken English. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1967. Books 1-6.

Lancaster, Louise. Introducing English: Oral Pre-Reading Program for Spanish-Speaking Primary Pupils. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.

Miami Linguistic Readers, Fifty-three booklets. Boston: D.C. Heath, 1964-1966.

National Council of Teachers of English. English for Today. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1965-67. Six textbooks in the series and a teacher's guide is available for each book.

New York City, Board of Education, Puerto Rican Study. Teaching of English to Puerto Rican Pupils. New York: Board of Education for the City of New York, 1957. Four volumes. Language Guide.

Puerto Rico, Department of Education. American English as a Second Language. Boston: D.C. Heath, 1965-67. Three volumes.

Rojas, Pauline M, Director. Fries American English Series: For the Study of English as a Second Language. Boston: D.C. Heath, 1952-57.

Wheeler, Gonzales. Let's Speak English. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967. Six volumes.

An Annotated Bibliography of Studies in Methodology

Cline, Marion. Improving Language Arts of Bilinguals Through Audio-Visual Means. New Mexico Highlands University. Printed in Santa Fe, New Mexico by the author, 1962.

Improved teaching may result from the use of audio-visual aids in working with bilinguals. The results of a two year study using a supplementary audio-visual approach showed that the experimental groups gained more than the control groups, except in spelling. Fewer disciplinary problems, a high level of interest, and longer retention seemed to be the greatest improvements through the audio-visual approach.

Decker, Samuel. "Adapting Audio-Visual Techniques to Language Instruction." Modern Language Journal. 42:69-77. February 1958.

Popular music and classical music were used to help teach vocabulary and patterns of a second language.

Finocchiaro, Mary. "Bilingual Readiness in Earliest School Years, A Curriculum Demonstration Project." ERIC. Ed. 012 903. p. 28.

Two New York schools, one in a poverty area and one in a middle class area were chosen as the samples in a study by Finocchiaro. A two-year experimental program was conducted to develop "bilingual readiness" in kindergarten and first grade. Efforts were made to choose kindergarten and first grade classes composed of equal numbers of Negro, Spanish-speaking and "other" children. Ability and I.Q. were not considered. In an environment where Spanish was used 65 per cent of the time, the children were encouraged to respond in both English and Spanish. The Spanish-speaking children gained more self-confidence and cultural awareness. There was also greater acceptance by the children and their parents in second language learning.

Harter, Helen. "English is Fun, or the Rhythm and Song Approach to the Teaching of English to non-English Speech Beginners." ERIC. Ed. 015 035. 1960. p. 92.

An interesting approach to teaching English as a second language to beginning students is outlined in this study. Drills, songs, games, dances, and nursery rhymes are utilized.

Herr, Selma E. "Effect of Pre-first Grade Training Upon Reading and Reading Achievement Among Spanish-American Children." Journal of Educational Psychology. 37:87-102; No. 2. February 1946.

Herr worked with two groups of five-year olds. The control group did not attend school while the experimental group went to school an extra year with emphasis on language, and visual and audial perception. Within a two year period, the experimental group showed significantly greater reading achievement.

Johnstone, Marjorie C. and Ferreira, Stella L. "Useful References for Teachers of Foreign Languages." Modern Language Journal. 41:309-312. November 1957.

Various types of reference materials such as records, books, reports, journals, film strips, charts, music, games, and vocational opportunities are available, as well as information on other countries in working with teaching foreign languages.

Lancaster, Louise. "Introducing English, An Oral Pre-Reading Program for Spanish-Speaking Pupils." ERIC. Ed. 013 454. 1966.

A twenty-eight unit program for teachers of four and five year olds is presented. The use of this material resulted in the children gaining command of spoken English.

Montez, Phillip, et. al. "An Evaluation of Operation Head Start Bilingual Children, Summer 1965." ERIC. Ed. 013 667. 1966.

This study showed that in California the Spanish-American is two years behind the Negro, and three and a half years behind the Anglo in scholastic achievement. Assimilation into our culture is made almost impossible due to the divergency of the Spanish culture in terms of the middle class values.

Morris, Joyce. The Santo Domingo Program of Concept and Language Development. Albuquerque: The Graduate School, University of New Mexico, 1963. Doctoral Dissertation.

Morris' study was based on the premise that New Mexican Indian children are failing to achieve at a level commensurate with their innate ability because of inadequate language skills and a meager experiential background. Concrete experiences were provided so these students could relate concepts to the curriculum. Fifteen field trips were planned to transport eighty primary school children to illustrative places mentioned in primary grade social studies and science courses of study. The airport, a train ride, an apple orchard, the TV and radio stations, the telephone offices, Zip Potato Chip factory, Seven-Up Bottling Co., Winrock Shopping Center were included. ESL lessons were written for practice both prior to and following the field trip. Morris' primary concern was making use of pattern practice in teaching the subject matter of social studies and elementary science.

Rohn, Ramona. Improvement of Oral English in the First Grade in the Santo Domingo School. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1964.

The greatest need of the Indian child in New Mexico's schools is to become more articulate in English. Two Indian groups (Zuni and Santo Domingo) were given the Common Concepts Foreign Language Test. The Santo Domingo children were taken on field trips and exposed to new materials and procedures and then retested. Improvement of

vocabulary and other gains were observed. Teachers must understand the difference between cultures and also understand the conflicts that arise because of these differences.

Spencer, Richard E. and Sequin, Edmond L. "The Relative Effectiveness of Earphones and Loudspeakers as a Means of Presenting a Listening Test in a Foreign Language." Modern Language Journal. 48:346-349. November 1964.

Two different methods of presenting a foreign test were observed. The experimental group used earphones with individual volume controls and the control group was instructed through the use of a loudspeaker. The performance on the listening test showed that the group using earphones did significantly better than those being instructed via the loudspeaker. No significant gains were made on the reading test. Serious consideration should be given to the communication media in which a language is taught and tested.

APPENDIX

Chapter IV

An Annotated Bibliography Related to Special Vocabulary Problems

Adkins, Patricia. "Teaching Idioms and Figures of Speech to Non-native Speakers of English." Modern Language Journal. 52:148-152. March 1968.

Lack of understanding of English idioms greatly handicaps students of Spanish background in developing reading skill in English. Formal instruction in idiomatic expressions should be given to these students when they are learning English.

Hess, Stephen Grant. A Comparative Study of the Understanding Which Bilingual Students Have of the Multiple Meanings of English Words. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1963. Master's Thesis.

The effect of multiple meaning English words on bilingual Indian and Spanish-speaking children was compared with their effect on monolingual English-speaking children. There was a significant difference in the achievement of the Spanish and Indian children compared to the Anglos, who achieved at a higher level than the other groups. The conclusions drawn from the study are that bilinguals need a better understanding of words in context and further studies are needed to explore the effects of multiple meaning words on various groups.

Mercer, Veta Walker. The Efficiency of the Bilingual Child in Understanding Analogies in the English Language. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1960. Master's Thesis.

The results of this study indicated that Anglo students, who were used in both the control and experimental groups, achieved at a higher level than Indian and Spanish children. The study concluded that non-Anglo students need to develop skill in understanding English analogies.

Yandell, Maurine. Some Difficulties Which Indian Children Encounter With Idioms in Reading. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1959.

Idiomatic expressions in English used in standard fourth, fifth and sixth grade reading tests were analyzed to determine the efficiency of performance in various ethnic groups. The results of the multi-choice test of idioms showed that the groups understood the idioms in this order: 1. Anglos; 2. Spanish; 3. Zuni Indians, and 4. Navajo. The reading level and scores on the idiom test for the Anglo and Navajo showed a high correlation.

Zintz, Miles V. and Morris, Joyce. Tutoring-Counseling Program for Indian Students 1960-1962. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1962.

Zintz and Morris posed the question, "Does a tutoring-counseling program for Indian students better attitudes and increase college achievement?" Twenty-six Indian students voluntarily sought tutoring-counseling. Each student who applied was given an informal acculturation questionnaire and an individual diagnostic and reading ability test. Language and reading problems were the causes of low school achievement. Adherence to Indian values caused acculturation problems when the students tried to become a part of the University. Competent program advisement and counseling are recommended, and remedial reading classes teaching English as a second language are essential.

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